DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 119 869

PS 008 463

AUTHOR TITLE Strayer, F. F.; Strayer, Janet

An Ethological Analysis of Dominance Relations Among

Young Children.

PUB DATE

Apr 75

25p.; Faper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development (Denver,

Colorado, April 10-13, 1975) Some parts may not reproduce clearly due to marginal quality of

original

EDRS PRICE DESCRIPTORS

MF-\$0.83 HC-\$1.67 Plus Postage

Classroom Observation Techniques; *Conflict;

*Interaction Process Analysis; Longitudinal Studies;

*Power Structure; Preschool Children; *Preschool Education; *Primatology; Video Tape Recordings

IDENTIFIERS *Ethology

ABSTRACT

This study examined children's conflict interactions in an attempt to provide evidence for the evolutionary continuity of the organization of power relations within primate societies and childhood peer groups. A total of 17 children, ages 3 - 5, were observed daily at their preschool over a three month period. Two one-half hour video samples were taken each day and the naturally occurring conflict in these video records was analyzed to assess dominance relations. The results indicated that the data collected from observations in this study correspond very closely to the linear dominance model which applies to the group behavior of primates. (JMB)

US DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
FOUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGIN
ATING IT POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRE
STATED TO NOT NECESSARILY REPRE

An Ethological Analysis of Dominance Relations Among Young Children*

by F. F. Strayer

Psychology Department York University Toronto, Ontario Canada

and

Janet Strayer

Psychology Department Simon Fraser University Vancouver, British Columbia Canada



BEST CONTAVALABLE

* Paper presented at the biennial meeting of S.R.C.D., April, 1975.

Denver, Colorado, U.S.A.



Social Dominance Among Young Children

Dyadic dominance relations and group dominance hierarchies are traditional concepts in primate social ethology (Crook, 1970; Hinde, 1974; Jolly, 1972; Kummer, 1971). Dyadic dominance describes the relative balance of social power between specific members in a social group, while dominance structures summarize the organization of such power relationships among all possible group members. Social dominance has been viewed as a basic dimension of primate social organization which relates to a number of other social processes -- e.g., group defense (Jolly, 1972); reaction to strangers (Ripley, 1967); social learning (Hall, 1968; Strayer, in press); social innovation (Frisch, 1968; Tsumori, 1967); social play (Dolhinow & Bishop, 1972), and to general reorganization of the social unit (Furuya, 1960; Sugiyama, 1965).

Theoretically, the existence of dyadic dominance and the maintenance of a stable dominance hierarchy function to minimize intra-group aggression by establishing a semi-permanent sequence of individual prerogatives (Etkin, 1964; Hinde, 1974). Having learned the appropriate power sequence for its social unit, each group member is able to anticipate, and thus to avoid, immediate adverse consequences of severe social aggression. In spite of general theoretical agreement concerning the adaptive significance of both dominance relations and dominance hierarchies, the empirical application of these concepts in comparative research has been problematic (Bernstein, 1970; Hinde, 1974; Richards, 1974). A recurrent issue in such research has been the development of a standard methodology which can be applied to a variety of primate species. Essentially, this problem entails specification of an adequate cross-species operational definition of social dominance.



Many earlier researchers attempted to assess primate dominance in terms of a single type of social interaction. Often such interactions consisted of artificial competitions in a controlled setting. Unfortunately, such unidimensional indices of dominance proved inadequate because results failed to generalize to other more natural locial settings. In large recent primate research, dominance has been reserved as a general descriptive concept which summarizes recurrent group patterns for the resolution of naturally occurring social conflict -- i.e., social agonism (Alexander & Bowers, 1969; Bernstein, 1970; Hinde, 1974; Strayer, Bovenkerk & Koopman, 1975). This use of social dominance necessitates the identification of specific behavioural patterns which characterize agonistic episodes between members of the species studied. Finally this descriptive approach stresses analysis of responses to initiated agonism as one of the primary indices of relative dyadic dominance (Rowell, 1966).

Given the apparent importance of both dyadic dominance relations and group dominance structures for understanding naturally occurring primate behaviour, it is surprising that these ethological concepts have been extended only recently to the analysis of human social relations. In one of the earliest attempts to relate primate and human dominance, Edelman and Omark (1973) developed a social hierarchy questionnaire to examine perception of dyadic social power among young children. These investigators questioned children of different ages about the relative "toughness" of selected pairs of classmates. In each group examined, the children's verbal reports revealed sufficient communality in the perception of dyadic social power to permit the identification of a single rank ordering on the dimension of "toughness". More recently, cross-cultural extensions of this



research have led these authors to conclude that a typical primate linear hierarchy provides an adequate summary of young children's power relations within the peer group (Omark, Omark & Edelman, in press; Omark & Edelman, in press).

In a more traditional ethological study of characteristic behavioural patterns among pre-school children, McGrew (1972) provided a preliminary behavioural analysis of human dominance relations. His assessments of dyadic dominance were derived from naturalistic observation of wins and losses during conflict over the possession of preferred objects. McGrew reported a nearly linear dominance structure among the boys in his preschool samples. This finding only partially corroborates reports of sexually stratified dominance structures among young children (Omark, et al, in press).

In a more recent behavioural analysis, Strayer (1975) identified three general categories of naturally occurring social conflict -- Attacks,

Threats, and Object/Position Struggles -- which could be used as converging indices of children's dominance relations. Naturalistic observation of such conflict among groups of preschool and elementary school children during free play periods revealed stable dyadic dominance relations and linear group status structures at both age levels. However, dominance appeared to be a more unitary social phenomenon among the older group of children, since only with this group did all three forms of conflict converge to yield a single linear dominance structure. In contrast, with the pre-school group, analysis of Attack and Threat interactions produced a single linear status structure, but this structure did not correspond with rankings derived from analysis of Object/Position Struggles. These latter



findings suggest possible ontogenetic trends in the development of human dominance relations. Among the younger children, status rankings may be interaction specific; and, only after more extended experience with the peer-group would these different structures converge to produce a single group dominance hierarchy. Finally, an important discrepancy between this latter study and earlier findings on human dominance, is an apparent lack of extreme sexual stratification in group status rankings. In both the groups observed by Strayer, a female was the most dominant child.

These preliminary studies suggest that there may be structural similarity in the organization of power relations within primate societies and
childhood peer-groups. However, more definitive evidence for such evolutionary continuity requires a more extensive examination of children's
conflict interactions. The present research was designed to provide such
an analysis through the development of a more fine-grained social agonism
inventory. Since our earlier work suggested the lack of a unitary dominance
structure among pre-school children we decided to focus at this age level
in order more clearly to identify possibly different status structures for
the resolution of different types of social conflict.

Method

Subjects

Eighteen children between the ages of three and five years were observed daily at their pre-school over a three month period. Systematic observations and video records were obtained for the last six weeks of this period on 17 children, since one girl had terminated her enrollment at the centre.



Procedure

Dominance relations were assessed through analysis of videorecords of naturally occurring conflict. Two 1/2 hour video samples were collected each day. Data were collected using a matrix-completion method. This method attempts to obtain data on as many dyads within the group as possible, in order to provide representative behavioural episcdes for each dyad, rather than to estimate actual rates of conflict (Altmann, 1974). The social agonism inventory was developed from repeated observation of videotaped episodes of social conflict collected during the initial six weeks of observation. Preliminary analyses resulted in the elaboration of the behavioural coding framework previously used by Strayer (1975). In the revised behavioural inventory the Physical Attack category was subdivided into six specific forms of initiated agonism: Bite, Chase, Hit, Kick, Push-pull, and Wrestle. The Threat Gesture category was comprised 'of four specific patterns: Intention Hit, Intention Kick, Intention Bite, and Face/Body Posture. Finally, two forms of Object/Position Struggles were distinguished: Displace with physical contact, and Displace without contact.

In addition to these forms of initiated agonism, five general categories of responses to initiated agonism were identified: Submission,

Help-Seeking, Counter-Attack, Object-Loss, and No-Response. Submission

consisted of seven specific appeasement gestures: Cry, Scream, Rapid

Flight, Cringe, Hand-Cover, Flinch, Withdraw, and Requests Cessation. Help seeking was distinguished in terms of the target - Seeks Child's Help, or

Seeks Adult Help. Counter-attacks included any response which could be scored as a form of initiated agonism. The categories of Object/Position



Loss and No-Response were not subdivided.

All episodes of social agonism were scored noting the initiator, target, pattern of initiation and response of the target. If an episode consisted of an extended sequence including a number of counter-attacks, each act was scored separately but the sequence was kept intact by noting the number of exchanges it entailed. Interactions were scored only if both their initiation and termination appeared in the video record.

Results and Discussion

Observed Social Agonism

During the last six weeks of systematic observation, 443 agonistic episodes were recorded. Table 1 shows both the total and relative frequency of occurrence for each category and pattern of initiation included in the present agonism inventory. Nearly 40% of the agonistic episodes entailed some form of Physical Attack. Two patterns - Hit and Push-Pull, accounted for over three quarters of attack interactions. Threat Gestures were the second most frequent type of initiated agonism. Approximately a third of the observations were scored in this category. Once again, two patterns - Intention Hit and Face & Body Posture - accounted for over three quarters of the observations. Slightly more than a quarter of all observations entailed Object/Position Struggles. However, with this final type of conflict there were only marginal differences between the category subdivisions.

Responses to initiated agonism are summarized in Table 2. Seeking help occurred at a surprisingly low frequency - only on four occasions did the victim of an agonistic episode seek external support. It is



interesting that on each of these occasions help was sought from one cf the daycare teachers, and not from another member of the peer-group. Three of the remaining response categories - submission, Object/Position Loss, and No-Response - each comprised about a quarter of the observed responses. Flinch was the most frequent submissive gesture; most of the remaining submissive patterns, with the exception of Request Cessation, each accounted for about 10 to 15% of the acts scored in this category. The low frequency of verbal submission was a surprising finding, since all of the children were quite able to engage in conversations. Slightly more than one in five agonistic episodes involved a counter-attack by the victim, or target. The majority of such counter-attacks were scored in the Threat Gesture category. Often if an initiated act led to a counter-attack, the agonistic episode would run into a more extended sequence with each member of the dyad countering attacks by the other. Such lengthy sequences almost always ended with one individual engaging in a submissive act. In contrast, initiated acts which led to No-Response by the target were usually short in duration, often consisting of the single dyadic exchange.

The above summaries give some preliminary indication of the specific nature of dyadic conflict transactions among this age group. However, the reported frequencies should be interpreted somewhat cautiously, since the present sampling technique was selected to maximize the derivation of a group dominance matrices, rather to provide accurate estimates of behavioural events. Our general feeling was that differences in our observations reflect actual differences in relative frequencies of specific acts, but confirmation of this hunch awaits analysis of data collected using individual (or focal) event samples (Altmann, 1974).



Dyadic Dominance Relations

Subsequent analyses of the present data focused exclusively upon dyadic agonistic interactions. These analyses were designed to assess the degree to which our observations corresponded to a linear dominance model. The appropriateness of this model as a summary of group patterns for conflict resolution can be evaluated in terms of the percentage of observed dyadic dominance relations which correspond to the linear transitivity rule. This rule states that if individual A dominates B, and individual B dominates C, then A should also dominate C. Characteristically, within many primate groups, close to 100% of observed dominance relations correspond to this rule (Lexander & Bowers, 1967; Richards, 1974; Strayer, in press; Strayer, et al, 1975).

Once having determined the appropriateness of the linear model, a second common question concerning status structures focuses upon the rigidity of the revealed dominance hierarchy. Rigidity of dominance roles is usually assessed in terms of the number of agonistic episodes which violate established dominance relations. Thus in a group where one member of each possible dyad wins all agonistic encounters, the status structure would be completely rigid. In a second group where determination of relative dyadic dominance for each pair was based upon winning only 51% of total dyadic interactions, the status structure would be almost completely fluid.

Figure 1 illustrates the dyadic frequency of interaction for all 17 children in the present sample. Inspection of this dyadic matrix reveals that agonistic interactions in the group were definitely not unidirectional. For example, although RO and SS each initiate the majority of dyadic agonism



with IF, IF also directs agonistic acts toward RO and SS. In this particular matrix, nearly 25% of the initiated acts lie below the diagonal of the matrix. Figure 2 shows only those initiated acts which led to Counter-Attacks and No-Responses. If these observations are eliminated from the complete set of observations, a matrix comprised only of agonistic acts leading to submission remains. This matrix is shown in Figure 3. This latter matrix begins to resemble a dominance hierarchy. Nearly 60% of the possible dyads in the group were observed to engage in agonismsubmission interactions. Given these 75 dyads, only six show dominance reversals which violate the linear transitivity rule. Thus this particular dominance structure would be nearly 92% linear at the relations level. Of the 230 agonistic acts in Figure 3, 33 indicate violations of the dominance ranking (i.e, 33 initiated acts are below the diagonal of the matrix). Thus, the rigidity index of this particular status structure based upon Attacks, Threats, and Objects/Position Struggles leading to Submission or Object/Position Loss is 86%.

Position Loss. Approximately 40% of the total possible dyads engaged in this type of conflict. There were again six violations of the linear model rule; thus this object position status ranking is only 88% linear. With regard to rigidity of this structure, there were 21 episodic reversals in the Figure 4 matrix. Thus, only about 76% of these interactions are predicted by the current rank ordering of children.

Figure 5 shows Physical Attack and Threat Gesture interactions which led to submission by the target child. Here, 45% of the dyads engaged in this type of conflict. There are two instances in which observed dominance



relations violate the linear model rule. Thus the Attack-Threat Status Structure is 98% linear. Of the 141 interactions summarized in Figure 5, only 12 represent episodic reversals of dyadic dominance. Thus the status ranking in this figure is about 94% rigid.

Finally examination of those Attack interactions which produced Submission by the target child reveals the status structure shown in Figure 6. Here, 30% of the possible dyads engaged in the specified type of interaction. There were no violations of the linear dominance rule for any of the 51 dyads observed to initiate such Attack behaviour. Thus, this status ranking is perfectly linear at the relational level. With regard to rigidity of the Attack ranking, there were only three episodic reversals of initiated agonism. Thus, this particular matrix is nearly 96% rigid.

Examination of the relative linearity and rigidity of status rankings based upon the three forms of initiated agonism led to the retention of Physical Attacks and Threats Gestures as primary behavioural indices of social dominance among young children. The resulting group dominance hierarchy is shown in Figure 7. Such behavioural indices of initiated agonism correspond quite well with dominance indices used among many non-human primates. Perhaps more importantly, the selection of only those initiated acts which led to clearly submissive reactions in the target child provides a striking parallel with Fowell's (1966) work on captive baboons. This emphasis upon submission during social conflict is prerequisite to an adequate distinction between dyadic dominance (or even dominance status) and individual aggressiveness. For example, RO - the alpha girl in Figure 7 - elicits submission from her peers on only five occasions. This contrasts sharply with the relatively greater initiation score of GL - a more submissive



low ranking boy. Also it is interesting to note the two relational reversals in this final Dominance Structure. Both of these reversals involve a close friend of RO, and were scored in the Threat Gesture category. These two observations provide the only indication of possible interaction between affiliative and power dimensions in the present pre-school sample.

Before closing, it seems relevant to draw attention to our original finding that analysis of Object/Position Struggles seem to yield slightly different status rankings for very young children. This finding directly parallels developmental differences in status rankings recently reported among captive Saimiri (Smith, Rhodes & Strayer, 1975). It seems that young squirrel monkeys are able to displace and steal from more dominant group members with relative impunity. A decrease in the rigidity of dominance relations to permit such unorthodox behaviour may well have important functional significance in that it facilitates exploration of the physical and social environment at a time when the young animal must acquire extensive practical knowledge. Perhaps the discrepancy in status ranking at the pre-school level reflects a particular time in development when similar impunity begins to wane among young children.



References

- Alexander, B.K., & Bowers, J.M. The social organization of Japanese monkeys in a two-acre enclosure. Folia Primatologica, 1969, 10, 220-242.
- Altmann, J. Observational study of behavior: sampling methods. <u>Behavior</u>, 1974, <u>XLIX</u>, 227-265.
- Bernstein, I.S. Primate status hierarchies. In L.A. Rosenblum (Ed.), <u>Primate behavior: developments in field and laboratory research</u>. New York:

 Academic Press, 1970. Pp. 71-111.
- Crook, J.H. Social organization and the environmental aspects of contemporary social ethology. Animal Behavior, 1970, 18, 197-209.
- Dolhinow, P.J., & Bischop, N. The development of motor skills and social relationships among primates through play. In P.J. Dolhinow (Ed.),

 Primate Patterns. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, 1972. Pp. 312-337.
- Edelman, M.S., & Omark, D.R. Dominance hierarchies in young children. Social Science Intermation, in press.
- Etkin, W. <u>Social Behavior and Organization among Vertebrates</u>. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964. Pp. 1-35.
- Frisch, J. Individual behavior and intertroop variability in Japanese monkeys.

 In <u>Primates: Studies in Adaptation and Variability.</u> P.C. Jay, (Ed.) New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968. Pp. 243-252.
- Furuya, Y. An example of fission of a natural troop of Japanese monkeys at Gagyusan. Primates, 1960, 2, 149-179.
- Hall, K.R.L. Social Learning in monkeys. In P. Jay (Ed.), <u>Primates: studies</u> in adaptation and variability. New York: Holt. Rinehart, & Winston, 1968. Pp. 383-397.
- Hinde, R.A. <u>Biological Basis of Human Social Behavior</u>. New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., (1974).



- Jolly, A. The Evolution of Primate Behavior. New York: The MacMillan Press, (1972).
- Kummer, H. Primate Societies: Group Techniques of Ecological Adaptation.
 Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co. (1971).
- McGrew, W. An Ethological Study of Children's Behavior. New York: Academic Press, (1972).
- Omark, D.R., & Edelman, M.S. The development of attention structures in young children. In M.R.A. Chance & R. Larsen (Eds.) <u>Attention Structures</u>.

 New York: John Wiley, in press.
- Omark, D.R., Omark, M., & Edelman, M.S. Formation of dominance hierarchies in young children: attention and perception. In T. Williams (Ed.)

 Psychological Anthropology. The Hague: Monton Press, in press.
- Richards, S.M. The concept of dominance and methods of assessment. <u>Animal Behavior</u>, 1974, <u>22</u>, 914-930.
- Ripley, S. Latertroop encounters among Coylon gray langurs. In S.A. Altmann (Ed.), <u>Social Communication among Primates</u>. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, <u>1967</u>, 237-254.
- Rowell, T.E. Hierarchy in the organization of a captive baboon troop. <u>Animal</u>
 <u>Behavior</u>, 1966, 14, 430-443.
- Smith, M., Rhodes, W., & Strayer, F.F. Dominance and status among captive Squirrel monkeys: a systematic comparison of assessment techniques. Submitted for presentation at annual meeting of C.P.A., Quebec City, 1975.
- Strayer, F.F. Preliminary investigations of social ecology among young children.

 Contribution to Symposium on Environmental Psychology at meeting of Ontario

 Psychological Association, 1975.
- Strayer, F.F. Learning and imitation as a function of social status in macaque monkeys (Micaca nemestrina). Animal Behavior, in press.



- Strayer, F.F., Bovenkerk, A., & Koopman, R.F. Dominance and affiliation in captive Squirrel monkeys (Saimiri sciureus). Journal of Comparative and Psychology, 1975, 89, 308-318.
- Sugiyama, Y. On social change of Hanuman langurs in their natural condition.

 Primates, 1965, 6, 381-418.
- Tsumori, A. Newly acquired behaviors and social interactions of Japanese monkeys. In S.A. Altmann (Ed.), <u>Social Communication among Primates</u>. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1967. Pp. 207-220.



LABLE 1

SUMMARY OF INITIATED AGONISM

BEHAVIOURS	FREQUENCY	PERCENT OF TOTAL
PHYSICAL ATTACK	173	39%
Chase	10	%9
Push-Pull	63	36%
Hit	80	%97
Kick	12	%/_
Wrestle	9	3%
Bite		1%
THREAT GESTURES	146	33%
Face & Body Posture	67	34%
Intencion Hit	76	52%
Intention Kick	19	13%
Intention Bite	2	1%
OBJECT/POSITION STRUGGLES	124	28%
Displace without Contact	09	787
Displace with Contact	. 79	52%
TOTAL AGONISM	443	



TABLE 2

SUPPRARY OF RESPONSES TO INITIATED AGONISM

BEHAVIOUR	FREQUENCY	PERCENT OF TOTAL
HELP-STEKING Seeks Adult Help Seeks Child Help	4- 4- 0	10% 0%
SUBMISSION	113	25%
Cry-Scream Rapid Flight Crinee	1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	10%
Hand-Cover Flinch	10 11 35	15% 9% 31%
Withdrawal Requests Cessation	16 5	15%
OBJECT/POSITION LOSS	113	26%
NO RESPONSE	118	26%
COUNTER-ATTACK	95	21.2
TOTAL RESPONSES	443	

4



Figure 1

TOTAL DYADIC AGONISM

TARGETS

	R	SS	B		17	S	10		Cs	Ka	IC.	Ty	G,	S	M	Ī	15.	rijn g
Da	0				ˈd	<u> 0</u>	(3	 		<u> a</u>	h	<u>, y</u>	<u>-</u> -	Sa	Me	Ju	Sh	Tot.
Ro	->	1	3	4	1			1	1	.	1		7		1			20
Ss	1		7	8	2	1	1	12	3		1	1	4	1			2	44
Br	7	4	1	7	3	2	2		1		8	1	5	5			1	40
14	3	3	2		3	1	13	3	5	1			8	3		2	1	48
Td	1	ļ <u>.</u>		3	No.	4	G		8	5	1		1	3		2	1	35
Sd	ļ		<u></u>				2	3	11		a		4	3		1		35
Pe	1		1	9	3	4		2			1		7	9	1	1		39
Ir				1	1	1	2	1	7	5	7	1	1					20
Cs	1	1	1	2	5	77		3	1]			1					25
Ka							1			1		11		1		1	4	18
Ch	C,		13	3	3	2	1			ļ,	No.	3	11	5		2	2	40
Ty										2		1	2		3			12
Gl		1	S	3		3	(F				11	2	John State	1		7	5	48
Sa		1	1		7	2	1				1		1	\				11
Me												3						3
Ju						4					• •	1	1					3
Sh									1	1		<u>-</u>				\	<u></u>	2
iot.	12	11	31	40	22	32	36	30	27	10	70	22	l	20		16		
INT.				لأست					3/	f'ir	29	23	53	37.	9	16	16	443

SECTATE

Figure 2

AGONISM LEADING TO NO RESPONSE AND COUNTERS

TARGETS I'd Sd Chity GISIM Jush Tot. Ro 5 Ss ישובים 19 Br 13 15 हर हो। हो स m m 13 Td 9 Sd 19 Pe 27 11 11 Cs Pm 55 16 Ka 3 Ch 22 Ty 8 Gt 1 to 12 32 Sa C" 57 9 M(3 3 Ju r: 3 t W Sh 1 6 23 25 16 13 16 13 15 7 13 10 25 9 213



(1)

NEATOR

Figure 3

AGONISM LEADING TO SUBMISSION

TARGETS

R S F T T S P T C K C T T G S M J S T T T T T T T T T	r	¬	-,						(PRE		,								
R0		LO.	SS	P	1,5	Td	S	[B		CS	Ka	Ch	T _y	G	Se	M	J	S	Tot
SS 2 200 2			n	#1 RT	ES F.ET	ı			12			**		1			T-	-	-i
If	Ss	a		KIE	 	R2	67	E				6	, as	15EE	 		-	W #1	
Td a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a	Br		-	1		а г	-	r	1	AG.				DII					1
Sd	14	£7	ED 53	me	1	எத	27	مين و وا	13175	ta ta	et.	···			 1			<u></u>	
Sd	Td	£31				1		1117	-	T'erent	~ ~	- 04	<u>-</u> .						
Pe	Sd	<u>† </u>				•		au		210.20		a n							i
C						<i>p</i>	X						 						1
C5				 					1				-		mare.		 	}	12
Ka									7		Uste	A.7					 		
Ch							41E7#	- x											9
Ty					×			- -			-	,	4 - 8 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2		(7)	ļ	2*♥	ES IN No.	15
GI													£7 /.7				1.5	67 E7	18
Sa												<u>'</u>	1	97		44000			4
Me	1												111	N . N	ET		iJM ET EX ES	ក្នុង ក្នុង	16
Me Ju Sh 1							×					"			No.				2
Sh																1			
Sh	1]												•	
	Sh									X									
1914 1917 1917 1918 20 23 3 12 15 230	For	4.	5	8	12	8	17		17	22	7	16	42	20!	2.2	2	22	\ 1_	
	16676								' '			101		20	/-3	ا . ر.	12	15	230

INITIATORS

Figure 4

OBJECT/POSITION STRUGGLES

TARGETS

	Ro	Se	Br	1,5	id	Sd	Pe	1	CS	Ka	Ch	Ty	G	Sa	돌c	J	5,	îot.
Ro			-	ET FIED				6:	-	-:-	ns		mar mar	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	1 4	1 1	10
Ss	X.	1	60 C4			67	EN .	E E	A7								a	10
Br				COLOREN	~	47	C# 12				12 m			EJ 53				
15	AV	अ रूट	10 E				es .				i				ļ			11 10
T d				×	/	41 S	~				E)							
Sd						1		CH 13		<u></u> -			er			82	<i>E</i> 77	12
Pe						35.								图标初				7
Ir										ES CA								6
Cs					×	1) ^X (4 E: 67		_	1									3
Ка							X			-								5
Ch	,,,		-				K III											1
Ту		-										·						
GL		×		-		<i>9</i> ,1						No.	V.F.O.		-			1
Sa													-	437		103 MB		5
Me												_		- Park				_0
Ju			-															0
				-		-			7,							1		0
Sh									X PO							[1
Oî,	3	3	6	7	2	13	7	8	4	2	5	2	9	11	1	3	3	89

MINTORS

Figure 5

ATTACKS & THREATS

TARGETS

	RO	SS	B	ļ _ç	Td	Sd	Fe	1	Cs	K 6.	Ch	Ty	G^{l}	Sa	Me	ال	Sh	Tot.
Ro	7	m	£7		<i>D1</i>								æ	67				5
Ss			E4	21 (2) (2)	es			en en en en	4.9			6.9	OFF				A7	15
Br		-		<u>.</u>	£1				42		שייביים בין באיי		19.57.57	es to			#7	16
16					17 tz	IJ	ETHERA PURE PURE	ne	ut te	ra			67 EN	L7 EF		பாள	#7	25
Td	co.						an es		42 43 /m	pa no						ET		14
Sd							E)	£7	64 87 63 89	E) [7	_	-				7.		9
Fe					<i>e</i> 7		1	ø					•	CT NEW				6
11									ABB	R: 62	£ų					ļ		6
Cs						20 F		Ø	1				24					4
Ka										1		**************************************		<i>p</i> 17		13	472127	14
Ch				×									E-MEE	AT C"/F			87	71
Ty												1	19		0.5			3
ઉંદ							(e	<u>-</u>			Es	CH.	2003000			MESTER	AT LIT ME FIT E'T	11
Sa						H					.,			MARC				2
Mo															/			0
Ju															ر	\		0
Sh																		0
lot.	1	2	2	5	6	4	13	9	18	5	11	11	19	12	2	9	12	141

NITATORS

Figure 6

ATTACKS

NITIATODS

Figure 7

DOMINANCE STRUCTURE

		·				H CA	<u> </u>		G	à [3]	3 E		•						
	Sc	Ro	Ss		12	d	Sd	0	-	(33	100	C	Ty	G	Sa	[] C	Ju	Sh	Tot.
	Ro	No.		0		c.		Ī				 - '				1	L.H	• •	12
	Ss		Danie.		3	5)	_	-	1					(2)				2	
	Br		0	To Marie		E E				F		6	- " -		3	2			15
	15					60		C	2	2	1		-	3	22	-	(3)		16
	Td	P ₀		 	3	0.4		3	تفسك	17	0	-		-	La	ļ <u>-</u>	7	7	00
G.	Sd	- " - ·			 	- 6	Barage .	0.0	T.	1	£ =	2							
	Pe		-			[1	F	1		<u> /-</u>		1 17 -	(3)	 			()
	15					<u>l.</u>					<u>a</u>	<u></u>		0	43)	 		-	6
O	Cs						£"5)			1 6 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	2.								6
	Ka						(7)		-	1880	0	,				·			A.
TEMPORE					F 0					0	*S. W. T. W.	-	9				1	67) 62)	I.C.
DECE	Cir			· .	C					6		Patrices	0		3				
e and	Ty										-	0	With Marin	i G	٠	2			3
STORY.	Gt							6			~	į ·	1.6	211	0	U	0	ton	E
	<u>\$a</u>						[¿,					[:	c	c	A Section	0			2
	Mei													•	•	P. Salar	0	•	0
	Ju										} 					ه ــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ	200	•	0
	Sh															0	0	E. No.	(1)
	ICT.		2	67) La	13				Ç.		F177	, p	F F		12	67	9	12	

A = DYADIC REVERSAL PHYADIC TIE

